

Abstract

Who responds most strongly to supervisor social undermining? Building on self-verification theory (Swann, 1983, 1987), we theorize that employees with positive views of the self (i.e. higher core self-evaluations (CSE)) who also maintain higher trust in workplace management are more likely to experience heightened stress and turnover intentions when undermined. We argue that this subset of employees (high CSE, high trust) are more likely to feel misunderstood when undermined by their supervisor and that this lack of self-verification partially explains their stronger responses to supervisor undermining. We find initial support for the first part of our model in a study of 259 healthcare workers in the United States and replicate and extend our findings in the second study of 330 employees in the United Kingdom. Our results suggest that the employees Human Resources often wishes to attract and retain—employees with high CSE and high trust in workplace management—react most strongly to supervisor social undermining.

Keywords: core self-evaluations, self-verification, stress appraisals, supervisor social undermining, trust in workplace management, turnover intentions

**Bad Bosses and Self-verification:
The Moderating Role of Core Self-Evaluations with
Trust in Workplace Management**

Research is quickly mounting on the deleterious effects of having a bad boss – bosses who engage in behaviors such as abuse (e.g., Tepper, 2000), bullying (e.g., Hoel, Glasø, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010), or undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). We focus on a relatively ubiquitous form of mistreatment, *supervisor social undermining*, which occurs when a supervisor intentionally tries to hinder employees' successes at work, interferes with their ability to maintain positive interpersonal relationships, and/or attempts to tarnish their reputation (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). The damaging effect of supervisor social undermining is indisputable, evident in the host of negative consequences for targeted employees (e.g., reduced self-efficacy and job satisfaction and increased health complaints; Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006) and for organizations (e.g., increased employee counterproductive behaviors, withdrawal, and turnover intentions; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Duffy, et al., 2006). And yet, we are only beginning to understand the conditions under which supervisor mistreatment might have the greatest impact on employees and organizations. For instance, research shows that employees who feel singled out in their mistreatment (Duffy et al., 2006) and who perceive mistreatment to be intentional and unfair report worse organizational outcomes (e.g., Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007, 2012; Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2002).

Our aim in the current study is not to re-examine the harmful effects of supervisor mistreatment, but instead to identify individual and contextual conditions that amplify the effects of supervisor undermining. We leverage self-verification theory (Swann, 1983, 1987) to guide

our predictions regarding when employees most strongly react to undermining. This theory suggests that individuals seek out information that confirms their own self-beliefs in pursuit of psychological coherence, or the feeling that one is understood by others; ideas about the self are “verified” by others. A person’s self-belief, operationalized here as core self-evaluations (CSE), plays a part in how a person responds to information and stimuli in the environment. Supervisor social undermining is one such stimulus, and, when individuals receive information that challenges a prevailing conception of the self, the self-concept is threatened. However, in such cases, self-verification theory suggests that there is unlikely to be a “flat-out denial of inconsistent information” but instead people engage in an elaborate process of scanning their environment to diagnose and make sense of the discrepant information and the extent to which the self is confirmed (Markus & Wurf, 1987, p. 318).

One way to approach this discordant situation is to consider whether their supervisor’s social undermining is a personal attack or is a symptom of the larger context in which the undermining occurred (e.g., Duffy et al., 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). While there may be a host of salient contextual factors in an employee’s environment, in this study, we focus on trust in workplace management (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Knowledge of the trustworthiness of management is crucial because it serves as a diagnostic tool to determine the normalcy of undermining from superiors. When high undermining is atypical in the environment (i.e., under high management trust), high CSE-employees are more likely to take undermining as a personal attack, resulting in worse outcomes (e.g., Duffy et al., 2006). Hence, we propose the strongest consequences of supervisor social undermining occur when an employee perceives supervisor undermining as atypical – i.e., among those whose beliefs about themselves and the trustworthiness of management are most positive.

We focus on two well documented outcomes of supervisor undermining – employee stress and turnover intentions – for three reasons. First, self-verification research suggests that when people are unable to self-verify, they experience dissonance, stress, and lower levels of wellbeing (Swann, 1983; 2012; Swann & Brooks, 2012; Swann & Schroeder, 1995) and actively try to exit their environment (see Swann & Buhrmester, 2012 for a review). Second, from an applied perspective, these consequences are key organizational concerns and should be mitigated (SHRM, 2018; CIPD, 2016). Third, because both stress and turnover are clearly linked to undermining in prior research, we can compare and build on past research.

Our paper contributes to the literature in several ways. First, we identify conditions under which undermining is felt most strongly and add to a growing body of research which shows that context – in the form of moderating variables (i.e. trust in management) – render self-verification more or less likely (e.g., Chen, English, & Peng, 2006; Swann & Schroeder, 1995). Our second contribution is in identifying and testing the mediating mechanism (i.e., diminished felt understanding) that explains why individuals with high levels of CSE and trust in management have higher levels of stress and turnover intentions. We turned to self-verification theory to suggest that self-verification is alluring because receiving information that is consistent with previous beliefs helps people to feel understood (e.g., Weger, 2005; Wiesenfeld, Swann, Brockner, & Bartel, 2007). Third, our study provides a counterpoint to research that has established that a positive self-view and trust in workplace management are wholly beneficial for individuals and organizations (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, 2002; Judge & Hurst, 2007). Although others have suggested buffering effects of such positive features of self and environments (e.g., Alfes, Shantz, & Truss, 2012; Best, Stapleton, & Downey, 2005; Harris, Harvey, & Kacmar, 2009), we propose that each can lead to higher stress and turnover intentions when they are

together juxtaposed against supervisor social undermining. Finally, we contribute to the practice of HRM as it provides insight into who is likely to experience exacerbated levels of stress and turnover intentions as a consequence of supervisor social undermining. Such understanding will go a long way toward providing direction and support to HR leaders who are charged with detoxifying work environments, managing manager-direct report relationships, and addressing workplace mistreatment (Fox & Cowan, 2015; Frost, 2003; Kulik, Cregan, Metz, & Brown, 2009).

Theoretical Development

Self-verification theory (Swann, 1983, 1987) suggests that people pursue psychological coherence because it provides a means to organize current experiences, predict future events, guide social interactions, and to feel understood by others. Stable self-views – regardless of how positive or negative they are – create a coherent social context and guide behavior to make people predictable to others, and this in turn stabilizes the way others respond, which further crystalizes people’s self-views. A person’s stable sense of self allows them to anticipate how others will act and react to them and given the circuitous nature of the self-verification process, they feel understood by others. In an effort to maintain a stable self-view, people seek out and embrace feedback congruent with their self-view and reject or avoid experiences that conflict with their self-view (see Swann, 2012 and Swann & Buhrmester, 2012, for reviews). When others’ treatment, feedback, or experiences are not aligned with individuals’ self-views, self-verification theory predicts they feel uncertainty, a loss of control, and personally threatened. As a result, individuals whose self-views are challenged tend to behave defensively (Croyle, Sun & Hart, 1997) and aggressively (e.g., Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996), report lower levels of

wellbeing (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1995) and less positive attitudes toward their job and organization (e.g., Shantz & Booth, 2014; Wiesenfeld et al, 2007).

Prior research has examined felt understanding as a key mechanism that explains why non-self-verifying information leads to detrimental outcomes. For instance, Wiesenfeld et al. (2007) found that participants with a positive self-view felt most understood when they were treated in a procedurally just manner, whereas those with a lower positive self-view, on the other hand, felt less understood when they were treated in a procedurally just manner. Hence the self-verification process is akin to felt understanding and pertains to individuals with both positive and negative self-views in the face of negative and positive information; alignment is key as misalignment leads to a sense of not feeling understood.

Core Self-Evaluation and Supervisor Undermining. The self-view can be represented by a person's core self-evaluations (e.g., Shantz & Booth, 2014), a higher order dispositional framework representing the fundamental evaluations people make about themselves and their functioning in the world (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Individuals high in CSE are confident, well adjusted, efficacious, and bring a positive frame to situations. Individuals low in CSE lack confidence, do not feel in control of their environment, dwell on their perceived inadequacies and view the world in a negative light (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Positive self-views in the form of higher CSE are linked to a variety of beneficial outcomes including lower levels of depression, (Blau, 2007; Park, Monnot, Jacob, & Wagner, 2011), stress (e.g., Luria & Torjman, 2009), strain (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009) and higher levels of job and life satisfaction, work commitment, motivation and goal commitment, task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (see Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012).

Although higher CSE is associated with generally positive outcomes, self-verification theory suggests the counterintuitive idea that employees with higher CSE may be more vulnerable than their low CSE counterparts following treatment from others that violates their self-view (e.g., Shantz & Booth, 2014; Wiesenfeld et al., 2007). In other words, supervisor undermining may be more damaging to individuals with higher CSE than those with lower CSE whose self-view is not as threatened by undermining. Supervisor social undermining expresses hostility towards a target and a motivation to harm. As such it represents a clear threat to the self-concept of a high CSE individual (Duffy et al., 2006). When faced with a threat to the self-concept, individuals are prone to engage in elaborate information-gathering processes to diagnose and make sense of the threat and to evaluate the inconsistent information within a given context (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Swann, Stephenson & Pittman, 1981). We turn to this process in more detail below.

CSE, Trust in Management, and Supervisor Undermining. Self-verification theory suggests that context becomes key when the self is not verified. Individuals scan the environment for cues to help them interpret information that runs counter to their sense of self; such cues enable an individual to diagnose whether this information is ‘normal’ in their context and to diagnose the extent to which the self is disconfirmed. In the case of social undermining, the self is especially threatened if the supervisor undermining is incongruent with what the person knows or observes in their normal environment. In a work context, individuals determine what is “normal” by examining the work environment. One contextual cue relevant to supervisor social undermining relates to the trustworthiness of workplace management. Trust in management is a lens through which employees interpret their environment and is based on the positive interpersonal relationship between employees and workplace management in which employees

allow themselves to be vulnerable to workplace managerial authority (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Employees with high trust believe in and depend on the intentions and behaviors of workplace management (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998), leading to improved individual and organizational outcomes (e.g., Jones & George, 1998; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995) including reduced effects of stress due to role overload (Aryee, Budhaware, & Chen, 2002; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Harvey, Kelloway, & Duncan-Leiper, 2003), and increased task performance, intentions to remain, and wellbeing (Alfes et al., 2012). High CSE employees who have a positive relationship with their supervisor (i.e. low supervisor social undermining), and also work in a trustful environment are likely to flourish.

Although trust in management is typically a desirable characteristic, in the context of higher supervisor undermining, a context characterized by higher trust may be harmful to high CSE employees. In a low trust context, the high CSE employee may be able to characterize their supervisor's undermining as in alignment with and a symptom of the generally poor environment and therefore not diagnostic of the self. Such a characterization reduces the effects of supervisor undermining for the high CSE employee. However, in a high trust context, the high CSE employee is less able to attribute their mistreatment to the broader environment and therefore, the effects of undermining are exacerbated. Consequently, they perceive the mistreatment as a personal attack on the self (i.e. 'the mistreatment is not a reflection of my environment; it is because of me'). This theorizing builds on research that suggests a positive work environment worsens the consequences of supervisor mistreatment (e.g., Thau & Mitchell, 2010; Duffy et al., 2002; Lian Ferris, & Brown, 2012).

Mediation of Felt Understanding. As a result of one's self-knowledge being threatened by supervisor undermining, the high CSE employee in a high trust environment may feel

especially misunderstood (Vázquez, Gómez, & Swann, 2018); they may question ‘how could my supervisor treat me this way when I am a capable, confident person, and the work environment is not conducive to this kind of behavior?’ Such questions are troubling because people are motivated to experience social interactions that demonstrate that their relationship partners see them as they see themselves (i.e., the relationship partner *knows* and *understands* them; Reis, Lemay, & Finkenauer, 2016). Research shows that epistemic concern – the belief that one is understood by others – is central to the self-verification process (Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992; Vázquez et al., 2018; Wiesenfeld et al., 2007). Self-verification theory asserts that people value being understood by others because it bolsters their belief that they can predict and control their environment and it validates their self-concept. This is important as feeling understood promotes personal and relational welfare, yet feeling misunderstood can lead to personal and relational suffering (see Reis et al., 2016 for overview).

Feeling misunderstood can trigger individuals to engage in compensatory responses to rebut conflicting information and to regain control of their environment and confirm the self (e.g., Vázquez et al., 2018). Prior research has examined felt understanding as an explanatory mechanism linking information that is (not) self-verifying and outcomes (e.g. Vázquez et al., 2018; Weger, 2005; Wiesenfeld et al., 2007). For example, Wiesenfeld et al. (2007) found that participants with a high positive self-view felt misunderstood (i.e., not self-verified) when they were treated in a procedurally unjust manner, whereas participants with a low positive self-view felt misunderstood when receiving procedurally fair treatment. Furthermore, when participants felt misunderstood, they lowered their organizational commitment to distance themselves from the organizational treatment that was not confirming the self, yet when they felt understood by the treatment received, they were more committed. Felt understanding explained the indirect

relationship between the procedural justice and self-view interaction and organizational commitment.

Hence, a high CSE employee operating in a high trust environment who is experiencing high levels of undermining will feel misunderstood, take such an attack personally, and question the self, resulting in a stronger, compensatory response, i.e., greater emotional destabilization and stress appraisal, that repudiates the threat to the self-view (Swann, 1983; 2012; Swann & Brooks, 2012; Swann & Hill, 1982; Swann & Schroeder, 1995, Vázquez et al., 2018). Further, high CSE, high trust employees may actively seek opportunities to exit the situation so that they can find a new one that is aligned with their view of the self (Swann & Buhrmester, 2012). For these employees who feel misunderstood, a greater affective response and intention to leave the organization are proximal outcomes that can at least initially provide some sense of control and path forward to confirm the self. The strong affective response can be healthy for the employee as it makes salient the importance of finding ways out of a non-verifying environment, and thinking of other opportunities may be an adaptive approach to eventually thrive.

In contrast, a high CSE employee in a high trust environment feels understood when she is praised by her supervisor, increasing her confidence and enabling her to reasonably predict and control the environment. In conditions of low supervisor social undermining, high CSE, high trust employees are likely to have lower levels of stress and intentions to leave, as they are fit to manage low, infrequent levels of undermining. If a minor incident of mistreatment does occur, they have the personal and contextual resources to be resilient and conclude that they are not exploited.

Taken together, we expect that employees with both high CSE and high trust in management will report exacerbated levels of stress and intentions to leave the organization

when faced with supervisor social undermining, and this relationship is mediated by not feeling understood. Given our propositions, we offer the following hypotheses. The first two are tested in Study 1, and all of them are tested in Study 2. Our theoretical model is depicted in Figure 1.

Hypothesis 1: The positive relationship between supervisor social undermining and stress is strengthened when CSE and trust in workplace management are high.

Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between supervisor social undermining and turnover intentions is strengthened when CSE and trust in workplace management are high.

Hypothesis 3: The negative relationship between supervisor social undermining and felt understanding is strengthened when CSE and trust in workplace management are high. The indirect effects of supervisor social undermining on (a) stress and (b) turnover intentions through felt understanding are thereby strengthened when CSE and trust in workplace management are high.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Study 1

Method

Sample and Procedure

Data were collected from direct-care healthcare workers (i.e., nursing, technician, and patient support staff) represented by two healthcare unions from the Midwest region of the United States. 849 members from union A and 309 members from union B received a survey and postage-paid return envelope at their home address. Given the data are single source, we incorporated procedural remedies from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) for reducing common method bias including: ensured survey anonymity through de-identified surveys and anonymous returns, reduced evaluation apprehension through home survey

completion, separated predictors and criteria on the survey, and ensured scale item quality (e.g., items had familiar terms and were short, succinct, and focused).

259 surveys were returned (204 from union A and 55 from union B) for a response rate of 22.4%. After excluding eleven surveys that were incomplete or contained missing items, the sample included 248 respondents: 89% were women, 97% were White, the average age was 43.02 years, and the average employer tenure was 11.93 years. For education, 14% of the respondents had at least a college degree; 24% had an Associate's degree; 53% had technical/some college training; and 8% completed high school.

Measures

Supervisor Social Undermining. Duffy et al.'s (2002) 13-item supervisor social undermining scale captured the frequency with which respondents experienced social undermining from their supervisor in the past year on a 6-point scale from 1 (*Never*) to 6 (*Daily*) ($\alpha = .95$). Sample items include: During the past year, how often has your supervisor intentionally (a) hurt your feelings; (b) undermined your effort to be successful on the job; (c) did not defend you when people spoke poorly of you.

Core Self-Evaluations (CSE). Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoreson's (2003) 12-item scale was used to measure CSE ($\alpha = .87$). Sample items include: (a) I am confident I get the success I deserve in my life; (b) Sometimes I feel depressed (reversed); and (c) Sometimes, I don't feel in control of my work (reversed). Respondents answered items on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*).

Trust in Workplace Management. Barling, Kelloway, and Iverson's (2003) two-item trust in workplace management scale has the following items: (a) workplace management is trustworthy and (b) workplace management and employees get along. Similar to Barling et al.,

we used a 3-point scale (i.e., 1 – *Disagree*; 2 – *Neutral*; 3 – *Agree*) to assess one’s level of agreement. The two items were averaged to determine the respondent’s score; Spearman Brown reliability was .84 (Hulin et al., 2001).

Stress Appraisals. We used Folkman and Lazarus’ (1985) harm dimension from their stress appraisal measures. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt the following after experiencing supervisor social undermining during the past year on a scale from 1 (*Not at all*) to 5 (*Extremely*). The *harm* items were: angry; disappointed; disgusted; guilty; and sad. We added a sixth item, *ashamed*. Scholars have determined that targeted employees feel ashamed when harmed by workplace aggression (e.g., Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Cronbach’s alpha for the six items was $\alpha = .82$.

Turnover Intentions. Rogers and Kelloway’s (1997) two-item measure assessed turnover intentions: (a) I will probably look for a new job outside of this organization in the next year; and (b) I will probably look for a new occupation in the next year. Respondents indicated their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). Items were averaged to create a total score ($\alpha = .75$).

Control Variables. Given our review of the literature and the nature of the sample, we identified variables that have the potential to covary with our independent and dependent variables: *Gender* (1 if Female) and *race* (1 if White) were controlled because women and minorities are the victims of disproportionately more workplace harassment and uncivil behaviors (e.g., Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Fox & Stallworth, 2005), and employees’ backgrounds can influence their responses to experienced aggression (e.g., Wasti & Cortina, 2002). *Age* and *tenure at employer* were controlled for because they are correlated with intentions to quit (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). *Education* (1 = less than high school, 2 = high school, 3 =

technical training/some college, 4 = associate's degree, 5 = college educated, 6 = some graduate work, 7 = advanced degree) was controlled because individuals with greater educational attainment perceive they have more control over their resources and workplace (Ross & Reskin, 1992). *Union* organization (1 if union A) was controlled because our sample comes from two unique unions, and the industrial relations climates differ. One item from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh's (1983) *job satisfaction* scale (All in all, I am satisfied with my job) was utilized because it is correlated with CSE (e.g., Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000), turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000), and general perceptions of management (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) determined that a one-item global job satisfaction measure is highly correlated with multi-item job satisfaction scales and approaches similar reliability as multi-item scales. Controlling for job satisfaction allows us to examine the effects of supervisor social undermining over and above perceptions of a negative general job context. We tested our hypotheses with and without control variables. The direction and significance levels across the two analyses were identical. We have presented the results with the control variables.

Statistical Examination of Common Method Variance

We followed Podsakoff et al.'s (2003) suggestion to examine the pervasiveness of common method variance by controlling for the effects of a method factor. Comparing the fit of the measurement model with and without a method factor, the model with the method factor (CFI=.94, RMSEA=.05, χ^2 (529)=803.75, $p < .001$) showed a slight improvement over the model without it (CFI=.91; RMSEA=.06, χ^2 (565)=930.58, $p < .001$; $\Delta\chi^2$ (36)=126.83, $p < .001$). However, the method factor accounted for a small portion (15%) of the total variance which is either less than or comparable to other studies' reports (e.g., Carlson & Perrewé, 1999, 16%; Shantz & Booth, 2014, 18%; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989, 27% average across studies). We also

examined the average variance extracted (AVE) of the items on the method factor, and the AVE was .08 which falls below the .50 cutoff that is used to indicate the presence of a latent factor (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Therefore, our findings suggest that common method variance is not a pervasive issue in the data.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics and intercorrelations. As expected, supervisor social undermining was positively correlated with stress appraisals and turnover intentions; those who experienced more supervisor social undermining were more likely to report higher stress and turnover intentions, consistent with existing literature (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015; Nahum-Shani, Henderson, Lim, & Vinokur, 2014).

Insert Table 1 about here

Moderated Regression Results

Stress Appraisals. Table 2 provides results from the moderated regressions for stress appraisals. We first entered the control variables (step 1) and the main effects of undermining, CSE, and trust (step 2). Then, the three two-way interactions were included (step 3): a significant two-way interaction between supervisor social undermining and trust in workplace management was found for stress appraisals. Finally, after entering the three-way interaction (step 4), we found a significant three-way interaction among supervisor social undermining, CSE, and trust in workplace management for stress appraisals.

Insert Table 2 about here

Figure 2 illustrates the three-way interaction among supervisor social undermining, CSE, and trust in workplace management for stress appraisals at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderators (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The simple slopes of all four lines were positive and significantly different from zero: high CSE-high trust (simple slope $b = 1.15$, $p < .001$); high CSE-low trust (simple slope $b = .35$, $p < .01$); low CSE-high trust (simple slope $b = .51$, $p < .001$); and low CSE-low trust (simple slope $b = .34$, $p < .001$). We tested the significance of differences in slopes and determined that the high CSE-high trust in workplace management slope was significantly different from the other three slopes at $p < .01$ (Dawson, 2006; Dawson & Richter, 2006). The slopes of the other three lines were not significantly different from each other. Results support Hypothesis 1; high CSE-high trust in management employees experienced the strongest positive relationship between supervisor social undermining and stress appraisals.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Turnover Intentions. Table 2 provides the turnover intentions regression results. In Step 3, the two-way interactions were not significant. However, the three-way interaction in Step 4 was significant. Figure 3 illustrates the three-way interaction among supervisor social undermining, CSE, and trust in workplace management and its relationship with employee turnover intentions. The only slope that was significantly positive is the high CSE-high trust in management slope (simple slope $b = .56$, $p < .01$). The other three slopes were not significantly different from zero – indicating that there were no systematic differences across levels of supervisor undermining with turnover intentions for high CSE-low trust, low CSE-high trust, and low CSE-low trust employees. Results support Hypothesis 2; employees with high-CSE and high-trust in management have the most exacerbated turnover intentions.

Insert Figure 3 about here

Study 2: Multi-Wave Field Study

We conducted Study 2 for four reasons. First, replication with extension is critical for advancing management science, especially for complex (i.e. interaction) models, as the demographic composition of the sample can influence results in ways unknown to the researchers (e.g., Hubbard, Vetter, & Little, 1998); hence, we examined whether the three-way pattern of results replicated in a different environment using a different sample. Second, replicating our results was also important because an arguable limitation to our field study was the response rate (22.4%). Although this rate is similar to, or surpasses, other attitudinal studies with samples from unionized settings (e.g., Fullagar & Barling, 1989, 26%; Kelloway & Barling 1993, 14.9% across samples; Kelloway, Catano, & Southwell, 1992, 17.2%; Twigg, Fuller, & Hester, 2008, 16%), it increases the likelihood of non-response bias. Hence, it was imperative to determine whether the pattern of results replicate. Third, Study 2 presents a survey design with 3 measurement occasions which provides more convincing evidence of our hypotheses and for establishing temporal precedence. Fourth, we are able to test a moderated mediation model in Study 2, thereby examining the processes through which undermining leads to higher turnover and stress.

Sample

Data were collected in three waves from an online sample of working adults in the UK. The sample was restricted to those who were employed and had the same supervisor for at least six months in the same organization. An initial 475 participants meeting these criteria completed the online questionnaire at wave one. To ensure data quality, 63 participants were not invited to subsequent weeks of data collection due to failing at least one of the attention checks and two

were excluded due to duplication of participant ID resulting in 410 respondents (i.e., 86.3% of initial response) for subsequent waves.

Of the 410 participants coming out of wave 1, 367 participants completed wave two of the study (87.3% of participants). Seven participants were dropped from the study because they no longer met the screening criteria (e.g., they switched jobs or changed supervisors), and two additional observations were excluded due to duplicate participant IDs. Of the 358 participants invited to wave three, 340 responded, however 10 participants were dropped because they no longer met the screening criteria. Our final sample included 330 respondents who had completed each wave (80.5% of participants invited to wave two; 69.5% of initial response).¹ 47% of our final sample were women, 92.1% were white, the average age was 50.83 years ($SD = 10.51$), and the average tenure of our sample was 13.6 years ($SD = 11.11$ years).

Procedure

Participants were recruited through PureProfile, a UK online panel data provider, and completed all waves on Qualtrics' online survey platform. At wave one, participants indicated their employment status, occupation, and details on duration of employment and time with their primary supervisor. Participants then completed measures of CSE and demographic control variables (tenure, age, gender, and minority status).

The wave two survey was sent to participants one week after the close of wave one. Participants indicated if they had experienced a job or supervisor change in the last week, and reported their occupation, age, gender, and minority status to ensure that participants were

¹ To ensure the quality of data from our online sample, we limited our analyses to include only the data from the 330 participants who completed each time point. However, by removing participants with missing data from the analyses we open ourselves to potential bias in our estimation (Enders, 2010). In order to alleviate concerns over this potential bias, we followed the advice of an anonymous reviewer and conducted supplemental analyses on all data from each time point using maximum likelihood estimation that accounts for the missing values. Results from these additional analyses were consistent with our reported results from the 330 participants with complete data.

responding consistently. Participants then completed measures of trust in management, experienced supervisor social undermining, and felt understanding.

Wave three measures were collected one week after the close of wave two. As before, participants indicated if they had changed jobs or supervisors and reported their occupation, age, gender, and minority status as consistency checks. Participants then completed outcome measures of stress appraisal and turnover intention.

Independent Variable and Moderator Measures

Participants responded to items on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*) unless otherwise indicated.

Core Self-Evaluations (CSE). We measured CSE at wave one ($\alpha = .90$) using the same 12-item measure as in Study 1 (i.e., Judge et al., 2003).

Trust in Workplace Management. Using the same 2-item measure as Study 1 (Barling et al., 2003), we measured trust in workplace management at wave two with a Spearman Brown reliability of .92.

Supervisor Social Undermining. Adapting Duffy and colleagues' (2002) 13-item supervisor social undermining scale, we captured the frequency at which respondents experienced undermining from their supervisor in the past week on a 9-point scale from 1 (*Never*) to 9 (*Several times an hour*). Undermining was measured at wave two ($\alpha = .95$).

Mediator Measure

Felt Understanding (Self-Verification). We measured participant felt understanding at wave two ($\alpha = .95$) with a 3-item scale from Wiesenfeld et al. (2007). Sample items include: (a) My supervisor sees me as I see myself; (b) I feel that my supervisor understands me. We chose

to capture this variable at Time 2 so that respondents' reflections on the extent to which they felt understood are as close to (as possible) their supervisor's social undermining.

Outcome Measures

Stress Appraisals. As in Study 1, we used Folkman and Lazarus' (1985) harm dimension from their stress appraisal measures ($\alpha = .90$) to measure stress at time 3. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt the following emotions after experiencing supervisor social undermining on a scale from 1 (*Not at all*) to 5 (*Extremely*): sad, disappointed, angry, disgusted, guilty, and ashamed.

Turnover Intentions. As in Study 1, Rogers and Kelloway's (1997) 2-item measure assessed turnover intentions at time 3. Measured at wave three, the items were averaged to create a total score, and the Spearman Brown reliability was .90.

Control Variables. As in Study 1, we controlled for gender (1 if Female), minority status (1 if White), age, and organizational tenure.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Table 3 provides descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among variables at each wave. As expected, supervisor social undermining was positively correlated with stress appraisals and turnover intentions; those who experienced more supervisor social undermining were more likely to report higher stress and turnover intentions, consistent with existing literature and our findings from Study 1.

Insert Table 3 about here

Moderated Regression Results

Before evaluating our moderated mediation analyses for Study 2, we sought to replicate the three-way moderation of the direct effect between supervisor undermining and stress appraisals and turnover intentions in our multi-wave data. The three-way interaction coefficients were significant in our models for stress at $p < .05$ with and without controls and for turnover intentions at $p = .04$ without controls and $p = .07$ with controls. Study 2's pattern of relationships and slope plots mirror those of Study 1, providing further support to Hypotheses 1 and 2.

Moderated Mediation Results

In our model, the effect of undermining on felt understanding (i.e., the mediator) depends multiplicatively on CSE and trust in management. Thus, the moderation of the undermining-felt understanding relationship by CSE is conditional on and, thus, varies with the second moderator, trust (Hayes, 2018). Similar to prior research (e.g., Trzebiatowski & Triana, 2018), we used Hayes' (2018) method to test our three-way moderated mediation model. For initial moderated mediation evidence (i.e., *conditional indirect effects* indicating a change in the magnitude of mediated effects at different levels of the moderators; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007), we first examined the moderation effect on our model's first path. Table 4 shows our multiple regression with the mediator as the dependent variable.

Insert Table 4 about here

We found a significant three-way interaction among social undermining, CSE, and trust in workplace management for felt understanding ($b = -.25$, $p < .05$; Figure 4), providing initial support for Hypothesis 3. The four simple slopes were negative and significantly different from zero, and high CSE-high trust in management had the strongest effect; high CSE-high trust

(simple slope $b = -.71$, $p = .00$), high CSE-low trust (simple slope $b = -.28$, $p = .00$), low CSE-high trust (simple slope $b = -.18$, $p = .05$), and low CSE-low trust (simple slope $b = -.25$, $p = .00$). We tested the significance of differences in slopes and determined that high CSE-high trust was significantly different from all other slopes at $p < .05$ to $.10$, providing initial support that high CSE-high trust individuals experience strengthened effects of undermining on felt understanding. Taken together, this evidence for moderation on the effect of supervisor undermining on our mediating mechanism provides a foundation to move forward evaluating our moderated mediation models.

Insert Figure 4 about here

We used the PROCESS 3.0 macro in SPSS (specifically, PROCESS Model 12; Hayes, 2018) to assess moderated mediation in our sample. First, we evaluated the effect of the mediator on each of our outcomes. These results, reported in Table 5, show that felt understanding is negatively related to stress appraisals ($b = -.14$, $p < .00$, Model 4) and turnover intentions ($b = -.30$, $p < .00$, Model 5).

Insert Table 5 about here

To test our moderated mediation hypotheses, we took the nested-equation path analytic approach outlined by Edwards and Lambert (2007) based on estimates from the models in Table 5. Following recommendations from Preacher and colleagues (2007), we estimated conditional indirect effects of undermining on stress appraisals and turnover intentions through our mediator at ± 1 SD around the mean of the moderators. This assesses the indirect effect of undermining on stress appraisals at high CSE-high trust, compared to high CSE-low trust, low CSE-high trust,

and low CSE-low trust. Differences in the magnitude of these conditional indirect effects provide evidence for moderated mediation. We constructed 95% confidence intervals for the significance tests using a bootstrap procedure with 5,000 replications.

 Insert Table 6 about here

The path analytic results are shown in Table 6, where P_{MX} is the path from X (undermining) to M (felt understanding), P_{YM} is the path from the mediator to Y (stress appraisal and turnover intention, respectively), P_{YX} is the path from X to Y (the direct effect of social undermining on stress appraisals and turnover intentions, respectively), and $P_{YMP_{MX}}$ is the indirect effect of X to Y. We find evidence for moderated mediation through felt understanding for both stress appraisals ($P_{YMP_{MX}} = .27$, 95% CI = .06 to .61, $p < .05$) and turnover intentions ($P_{YMP_{MX}} = .58$, 95% CI = .12 to 1.34, $p < .05$) when CSE and trust in management are both high. In both models, the magnitude of the indirect effect is the strongest when CSE and trust in management are both high. These results indicate that the effect of undermining on stress appraisals (Figure 5) and turnover intentions (Figure 6) through felt understanding are strengthened for high CSE-high trust individuals, providing further support for Hypothesis 3a and 3b.

 Insert Figures 5 and 6 about here

Discussion

The present study sought to explain variability in employee responses to supervisor social undermining, paying particular attention to the conditions under which the effects are most strongly felt. With reliance on self-verification theory (Swann, 1983, 1987), which suggests

people seek to verify their self-concepts as they want to feel understood by others, we theorized that when faced with supervisor social undermining—an experience that does not verify their self-concepts—high CSE employees look to their environment to diagnose whether the undermining is a personal attack, or a symptom of a negative managerial climate (Markus & Wurf, 1987). We theorized that employees with high CSE and who trust workplace management experience the strongest outcomes from supervisor undermining because they do not feel understood by their supervisor, as the mistreatment does not verify the self. Our empirical work across two studies supported our theory.

This pattern of results is important and intriguing given that the literature typically finds favorable characteristics such as a positive self-concept and a good management climate are associated with *lower* experienced supervisor undermining (Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Gabi, 2012; Scott, Ingram, Zagenczyk, & Shoss, 2015). Indeed, this pattern is seen in the correlations from our studies as well—having high CSE and high trust in management was associated with lower reported undermining. However, this pattern speaks to the frequency of supervisor social undermining, not the gravity of the effects of undermining when it does occur, and we must be careful not to conflate the two. Thus, although having high CSE and high trust in management is negatively related to experiencing supervisor social undermining, should undermining occur, high CSE/high trust employees experience heightened stress and turnover intentions. Our arguments and findings lay the foundation for future work to further understand the responses of victims of supervisor social undermining and other uncivil work behaviors.

Our study is particularly relevant to research that has identified moderators of the relationship between supervisor mistreatment and employee responses. Our study departs from

this body of research by focusing on the interplay of moderators, in this case on the inconsistency that may arise when supervisors mistreat their employees in an environment where they feel that general management is trustworthy. Our results do not mean that a high trust environment leads to poor outcomes in organizations; rather high stress and turnover intentions result when employees experience a mismatch between their own supervisor's treatment of them vis-à-vis how other managers treat their employees.

The present study also makes an important contribution to the literature on CSE and trust in workplace management. Our results showed that victimized employees with high levels of CSE and who trust management experience higher stress and turnover intentions compared to employees with relatively lower levels of CSE, regardless of their level of trust in management. At first blush, this appear to contradict research that shows that high CSE is a resource that wards off the detrimental consequences of stressful events. For instance, Harris et al. (2009) found that high CSE buffered the negative impact of social stressors on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Their theoretical argument was that high CSE employees are optimistic about their job and work environment, and optimism leads high CSE employees to “see negative social interactions at work as isolated episodes rather than systematic” (p. 156). However, this has an important distinction from the current study in which the interplay of CSE and a trust context creates a situation in which employees respond to a stressful event when they sense that their CSE is under attack (i.e., they are singled out) because they are unable to rationalize their being targeted (in high trust in management contexts). Given our findings, additional work on the complex role of CSE in favorable and unfavorable work situations would be fruitful.

Scholars have a tendency to explain victims' responses to supervisor mistreatment using theoretical perspectives such as injustice and negative social exchange. We, however, contribute

to the supervisor mistreatment literature by investigating felt understanding, i.e., an indicator of self-verification (Wiesenfeld et al., 2007), as the explanatory mechanism of the supervisor undermining–victim response relationships. Unlike justice and exchange theories, with this current theoretical underpinning, the focus is placed on the coherence of the self-concept and the extent the employee feels self-verified (i.e., understood) that motivate employee response to supervisor undermining. When one’s self-knowledge is threatened by supervisor undermining and his/her context provides diagnostic information that the reason for mistreatment is more personal than situational, s/he especially feels misunderstood. These feelings elicit a compensatory response to reaffirm the self by strongly rejecting threats to the self (e.g., Swann & Hill, 1982), such as stronger stress appraisals, and by seeking options to remove oneself from the situation that is not confirming (e.g., Swann & Pelham, 2002), such as thinking about exiting one’s organization. Future research should continue our approach in broadening understanding of mediators that explain consequences of supervisor mistreatment. For example, there likely is variation in the expectations that individuals have of others for their self to be confirmed, and (un)met expectations may be a mediator to further pursue.

Our research also reminds us of the importance of examining employee versus organization-focused outcome variables, the latter of which have dominated most research in HR (Guest, 2002). At first blush, the outcomes that we investigate here are negative – few HR practitioners would disagree with the contention that high wellbeing and retention are key strategic goals. However, when considering the employee perspective, it is debatable whether high CSE, high trust employees’ reactions are altogether negative, or whether they are an adaptive response to undermining. Stress (at least in the short term) could be considered a healthy response to unwarranted supervisory behavior from the employee perspective. Likewise,

leaving the situation might be an adaptive response to undermining, and ultimately in the long term, high CSE employees may be better off leaving. Our hope is that future research continues to reflect on the nature of outcome variables and whether they are solely beneficial to the organization or employee.

Practical Implications

Although organizations certainly benefit from employees who have positive self-views and who perceive management as trustworthy, the present study shows that in the presence of supervisor social undermining, such employees are at the highest risk of experiencing stress and exiting the organization. A naïve implication of the present findings might be that if there is undermining in an organization, then HR professionals would be advised to select employees who have lower levels of CSE and promote distrust in workplace management so that employees do not have unfavorable outcomes and instead have a sense that they know what they are getting into. However, suggesting there may be benefits to hiring employees with lower levels of CSE ignores research that suggests that employees with high levels of CSE are a boon to organizations under most circumstances (e.g., Judge et al., 1997, 1998). In addition, the preponderance of evidence regarding the outcomes of greater trust in management is clearly positive (e.g., Alfes et al., 2012; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Harvey et al., 2003).

Hence, it is in HR's best interest to reduce undermining in the workplace overall. HR leaders should identify managers who undermine their employees and either provide them with training or coaching to improve their leadership abilities or remove them from leadership. HR should strive to create a corporate climate that fosters beneficial interpersonal interactions and admonishes undermining ones. HR practices can facilitate this effort. For instance, selection and job appraisal instruments, such as 360 appraisals, can be developed to help detect managers who

undermine as can regular employee engagement surveys that can be linked to specific managers. Training programs can educate managers and other stakeholders on how to identify undermining behaviors and how to mitigate undermining behaviors when they arise. This research underscores the critical importance of ensuring that HR works in tandem with line management to create a culture of trust, as our results demonstrate that high levels of trust in workplace management without corresponding positive relationships with supervisors may lead some employees to experience heightened stress and ultimately exit the firm.

HR professionals might also consider our results in light of the broader literature on self-verification (Swann, 1983, 1987). A take-away from this study is that employees want to have their assumptions and beliefs verified; organizations should strive to act in a consistent manner and not create conditions of surprise and uncertainty so that employees feel understood. Organizations providing a consistent positive environment with low undermining and high trust in workplace management would benefit all.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

In both studies, our data was collected from one source, raising concerns regarding common method variance. We employed procedural and statistical remedies as described in the Method section to ensure that factors other than common method variance are the source of variance found in our data. In addition, our hypotheses and findings are centered on moderating relationships, and common method variance does not explain significant interactions (Evans, 1985; McClelland & Judd, 1993). Thus, we do not feel common method variance is a compelling alternative explanation for our findings. Furthermore, our interaction findings in Study 1 are consistent with those found in Study 2, and each of the three-way interactions in our studies

contributed between 1% and 2% of incremental variance. Given that interactions are difficult to generally detect and replicate, these are significant findings (Evans, 1985).

A related limitation concerns the self-report nature of the data. However, many of our constructs call for self-report data. For instance, most research on workplace incivility uses a self-report incivility measure from the victim's perspective (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). This is likely because supervisors may underreport their own undermining behavior and observers of supervisor-employee interactions may not accurately assess undermining given that some behaviors are indirect and not readily observed. Further, a non-self-report measure of CSE would be based on another's inferences and, thus, is subject to inaccuracies because CSE involves "personal evaluations and not observable behaviors" (Bono & Judge, 2003, p. 16). Self-reported CSE is theoretically consistent with self-verification theory because we needed to capture a self-appraisal of one's self-concept. Thus, our self-reported measures seem appropriate to the constructs measured and are consistent with the literature on this area (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; Duffy et al., 2006; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987).

It is important to note that in Study 2, we captured social undermining at time 2, whereas capturing it at time 1 would have given greater strength to our mediation argument. However, theoretically, capturing social undermining at time 2 provided more immediate information about their interactions with their supervisor to link with felt understanding. If we had separated the independent and mediator variables in time, there is likely to be more variance in relationships as circumstances develop. We chose to trade off the optimal sequencing of our variables for enhanced precision in control and measurement of variables (McGrath, 1982). We also conducted supplemental tests of reverse causality for constructs that were measured at the same

time (Hayes, 2018; Trzebiatowski & Triana, 2018). Our results showed that the ordering we hypothesized is a better fit to the data than alternative orderings.²

Finally, although we looked at individuals' responses to social undermining over time, we are still capturing a single reporting instance. It may be fruitful to consider examining within-person situational variation. Future research might also rely on the critical incident technique to generate specific stories of undermining, and employees' reactions to such undermining. In this way, additional situational variables can be considered.

Conclusion

Our findings should serve as a wake-up call to employers and HR departments that even those who are seemingly on top of their game – typically those employees who HR wants to attract, engage, and retain – are at risk of abuse. And what is even more worrisome from HR's point of view is that it is those same employees who may have the strongest reactions to supervisor social undermining. In this study, we drew from self-verification theory to explain stress appraisals and turnover intentions of employees who had been undermined by their supervisor. Although the frequency with which employees experience supervisor social undermining generally impacted employees negatively, our results revealed that those with high CSE and high trust in workplace management felt the greatest impact.

² Supplemental tests are available from the first author upon request.

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Table 1
 Study 1 (Field Study): Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. White	.97	.18	--											
2. Female	.89	.32	.15	--										
3. Age	43.02	11.38	.10	.01	--									
4. Education	3.45	.92	-.03	-.07	-.27	--								
5. Tenure	11.93	10.01	.17	.05	.54	-.30	--							
6. Union	.79	.41	.07	.07	.18	-.03	-.06	--						
7. Job Satisfaction	5.77	1.15	.12	.08	.07	-.12	.04	.03	--					
8. Supervisor Social Undermining	1.56	.84	.03	-.01	-.00	-.01	.01	-.01	-.30	(.95)				
9. Core Self-Evaluations	3.69	.60	.05	.02	.02	.07	.09	-.06	.27	-.29	(.87)			
10. Trust in Workplace Management	2.07	.78	-.09	.07	-.12	-.01	-.14	-.14	.41	-.36	.27	(.84)		
11. Stress Appraisals	2.24	.79	.11	-.01	.03	.09	.04	.08	-.20	.49	-.30	-.30	(.82)	
12. Turnover Intentions	2.51	1.43	-.11	-.09	-.34	.10	-.29	-.10	-.40	.25	-.28	-.26	.16	(.75)

Note. Descriptive statistics are based on 248 observations.

The alpha internal-consistency reliability coefficients appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

$|r| \geq .21; p < .001.$

$|r| \geq .17; p < .01.$

$|r| \geq .13; p < .05.$

$|r| \geq .11; p < .10.$

Two-tailed tests.

Table 2:
Study 1 (Field Study): Multiple Regression Tests of Moderation for Stress Appraisals and Turnover Intentions

Variables	Stress Appraisals				Turnover Intentions			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
White	.13*	.09	.10†	.11†	-.00	-.03	-.02	-.01
Female	-.01	-.01	.00	.02	-.05	-.04	-.03	-.02
Age	.01	.00	.00	.01	-.23**	-.24***	-.25***	-.23***
Education	.08	.13*	.12*	.12*	-.06	-.04	-.03	-.03
Tenure	.05	.06	.05	.04	-.17**	-.17*	-.16*	-.17*
Union	.08	.06	.05	.05	-.05	-.08	-.08	-.08
Job Satisfaction	-.21**	.01	-.01	-.01	-.37***	-.24***	-.23***	-.23***
Supervisor Social Undermining (SU)		.42***	.55***	.59***		.09	.13†	.17*
Core Self-Evaluations (CSE)		-.17**	-.15*	-.09		-.12*	-.12*	-.06
Trust in Workplace Management		-.08	-.07	-.03		-.17*	-.15*	-.11†
SU x CSE			.11	.16*			.10	.15*
SU x Trust			.16*	.24**			.00	.08
CSE x Trust			.04	.05			.09	.10†
SU x CSE x Trust				.16*				.15*
R ²	.07*	.31***	.34***	.35***	.28***	.34***	.34***	.36***
ΔR ²		.24***	.03*	.01*		.06***	.00	.02*
	<i>F</i> (7,240) = 2.68	<i>F</i> (10,237) = 10.76	<i>F</i> (13,234) = 9.17	<i>F</i> (14,233) = 9.01	<i>F</i> (7,240) = 13.13	<i>F</i> (10,237) = 11.95	<i>F</i> (13,234) = 9.43	<i>F</i> (14,233) = 9.22

N = 248; Two-tailed tests; †<0.10; * *p*<0.05; ** *p*<0.01; *** *p*<0.001

Table 3
Study 2 (Multi-Wave Field Study): Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Time 1 Demographic Controls												
1. Tenure	13.60	11.11	--									
2. Gender ^a	.47	.50	-.21**	--								
3. Race ^b	.92	.27	.03	-.04	--							
4. Age	50.83	10.51	.35**	-.17**	.20**	--						
Predictors												
5. CSE (T1)	4.94	.96	.20**	-.14*	.06	.25**	(.90)					
6. Trust (T2)	5.05	1.40	-.06	-.02	.05	.07	.25**	(.92)				
7. Undermining (T2)	1.21	.57	-.04	-.01	-.10	-.14*	-.16**	-.34**	(.95)			
Time 2 Mediator												
8. Felt Understanding	4.79	1.52	-.02	.03	-.06	.05	.28**	.65**	-.42**	(.95)		
Time 3 Outcomes												
9. Stress Appraisal	1.42	.67	-.06	.08	.00	-.11*	-.22**	-.23**	.44**	-.41**	(.90)	
10. Turnover Intention	2.80	1.80	-.17**	.02	-.16**	-.34**	-.31**	-.40**	.25**	-.42**	.23**	(.90)

N = 330. The alpha internal-consistency reliability coefficients appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

^a For gender, 0 = "male," 1 = "female," ^b For race, 0 = "non-white," 1 = "white."

Two-tailed tests, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Given the correlation between felt understanding and trust, we ran a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to ensure that the two constructs were distinct. The results of this analysis support our use of the constructs as two distinct factors ($\chi^2(4) = 10.24, p = .04; RMSEA = .07; CFI = 1.00; TLI = .99; SRMR = .01$) rather than one combined factor ($\chi^2(5) = 272.62, p < .00; RMSEA = .40; CFI = .83; TLI = .66; SRMR = .09; \chi^2_{diff.} = 262.38, p < .001$).

Table 4
 Study 2 (Multi-Wave Field Study): Moderated Regression Analysis

	Felt Understanding		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<i>Controls</i>			
Tenure	.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)
Gender	.14 (.12)	.14 (.12)	.16 (.12)
Race	-.63** (.23)	-.69** (.24)	-.65** (.24)
Age	.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Supervisor Social Undermining (SU)	-.59*** (.11)	-0.73 (.64)	-4.25* (1.76)
Core Self-Evaluations (CSE)	.19** (.07)	-.25 (.34)	-1.20* (.56)
Trust in Workplace Management	.60*** (.05)	.25 (.28)	-.95 (.63)
SU x CSE		.04 (.12)	.85* (.39)
SU x Trust		-.02 (.07)	1.04* (.50)
CSE x Trust		.07 (.05)	.35* (.14)
SU x CSE x Trust			-.25* (.11)
R ²	0.50	0.50	0.51
ΔR ²	-	0.00	0.01
	$F(7,322) = 45.17,$ $p = .00$	$F(10,319) = 31.88,$ $p = .00$	$F(11,318) = 29.72,$ $p = .00$

N = 330; Two-tailed tests. Unstandardized coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 5
 Study 2 (Multi-Wave Field Study): Moderated Mediation Analysis

	Stress Appraisal	Turnover Intentions
	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Controls</i>		
Tenure	.00 (.00)	-.02 (.01)
Gender	.10 (.07)	-.25 (.17)
Race	.07 (.13)	-.72* (.32)
Age	.00 (.00)	-.04*** (.01)
<i>Independent Variables</i>		
Supervisor Social Undermining (SU)	3.24*** (.93)	1.92 (2.41)
Core Self-Evaluations (CSE)	.72* (.29)	-.02 (.76)
Trust in Workplace Management	.78* (.33)	-.11 (.85)
SU x CSE	-.61** (.21)	-.65 (.54)
SU x Trust	-.58* (.26)	-.66 (.68)
CSE x Trust	-.15* (.07)	-.12 (.19)
SU x CSE x Trust	.13* (.06)	.21 (.16)
<i>Mediators</i>		
Felt Understanding	-.14*** (.03)	-.30*** (.08)
R ²	0.31 $F(12,317) = 12.11,$ $p = .00$	0.35 $F(12,317) = 14.54,$ $p = .00$

N = 330; Two-tailed tests. Unstandardized coefficients.

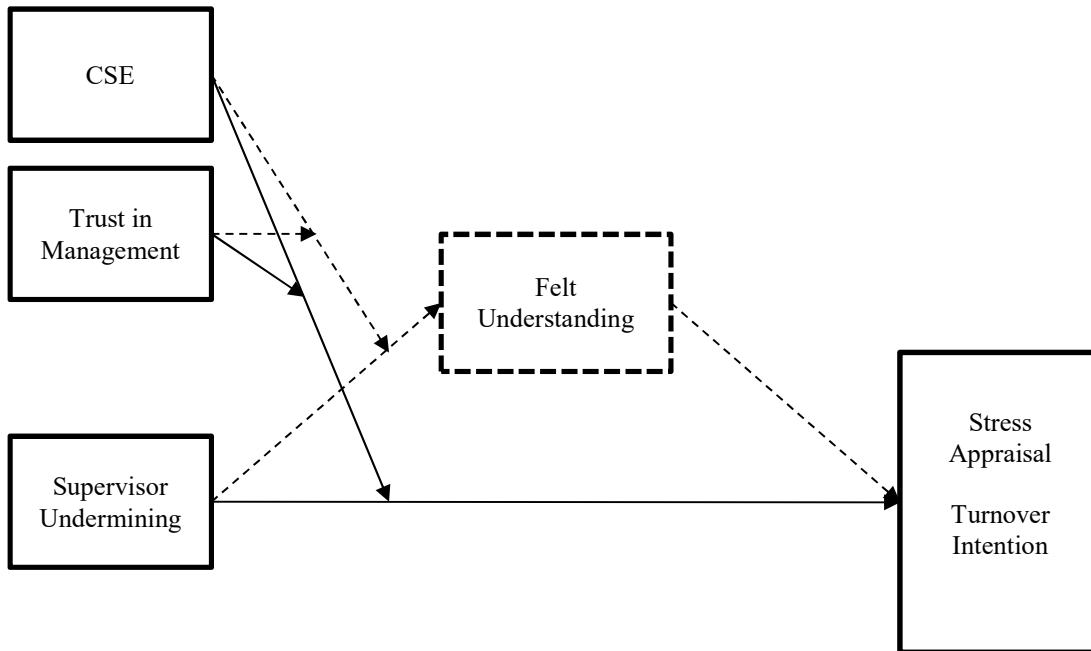
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 6
 Study 2: Path Analytic Results for Stress Appraisals and Turnover via Felt Understanding

	First Stage		Second Stage		Direct Effects		Indirect Effects		Total Effects
	P _{MX}	(SE)	P _{YM}	(SE)	P _{YX}	(SE)	P _{YMP_{MX}}	(95% CI)	
<i>Stress Appraisals</i>									
Low CSE x Low Trust	-.62***	(.14)	-.14***	(.03)	.49***	(.07)	.09	(.03, .22)	.58
Low CSE x High Trust	-.43	(.26)	-.14***	(.03)	.26	(.14)	.06	(-.03, .36)	.32
High CSE x Low Trust	-.88***	(.24)	-.14***	(.03)	.27*	(.13)	.12	(.05, .43)	.39
High CSE x High Trust	-1.92**	(.68)	-.14***	(.03)	.66	(.36)	.27	(.06, .61)	.93
<i>Turnover Intentions</i>									
Low CSE x Low Trust	-.62***	(.14)	-.30***	(.08)	.04	(.19)	.19	(.06, .53)	.23
Low CSE x High Trust	-.43	(.26)	-.30***	(.08)	.48	(.36)	.13	(-.07, .80)	.61
High CSE x Low Trust	-.88***	(.24)	-.30***	(.08)	.42	(.33)	.27	(.10, .91)	.69
High CSE x High Trust	-1.92**	(.68)	-.30***	(.08)	1.92*	(.93)	.58	(.12, 1.34)	2.50

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Figure 1
Theoretical Model of Relationships between Supervisor Undermining and Stress and Turnover Intentions



Note: Dashed lines refer to relationships only tested in Study 2.

Figure 2
Three-way Interaction among Supervisor Social Undermining, Core Self-Evaluations, and Trust in Workplace Management Predicting Stress (Study 1)

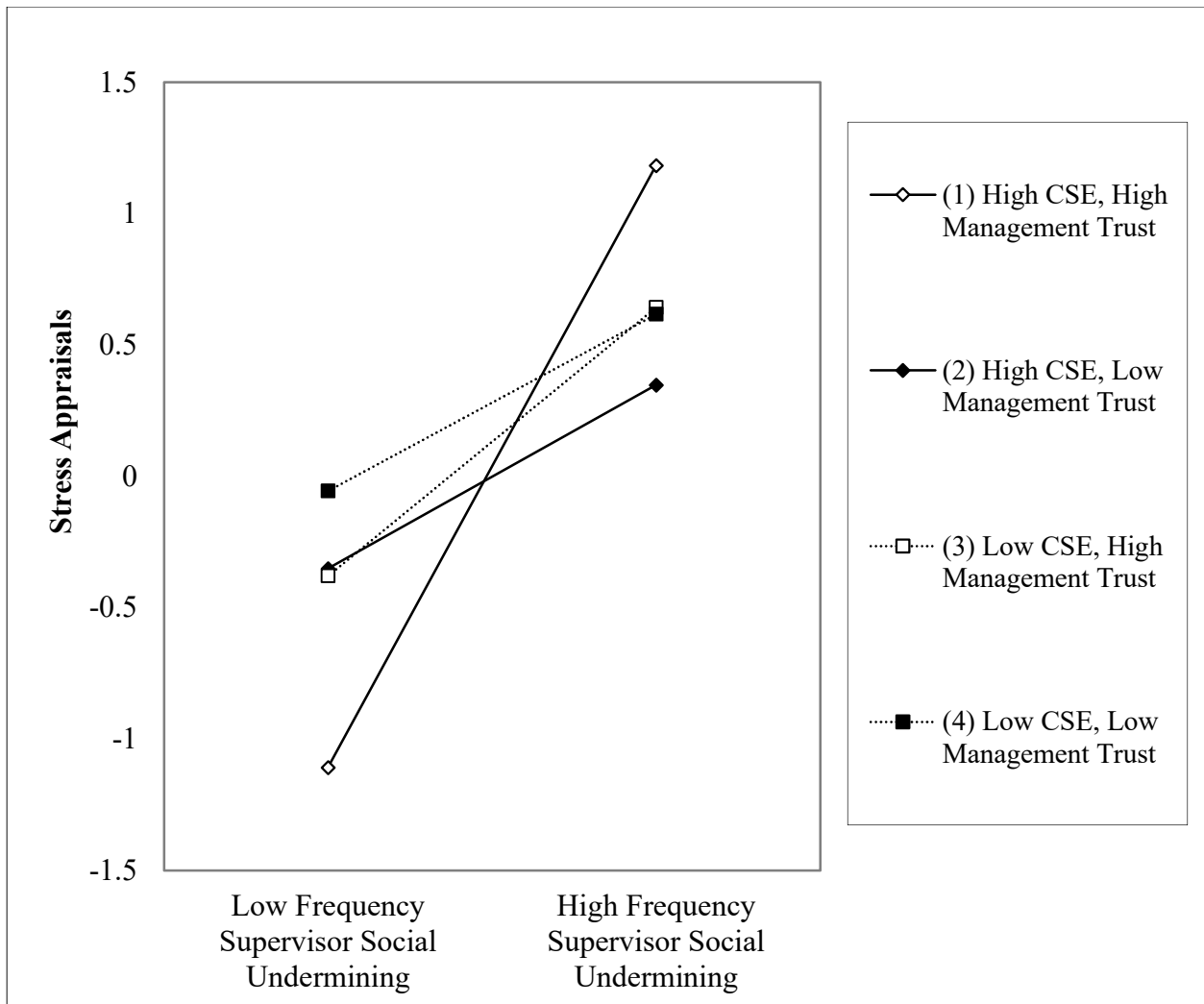


Figure 3
Three-way Interaction among Supervisor Social Undermining, Core Self-Evaluations, and Trust in Workplace Management Predicting Turnover Intentions (Study 1)

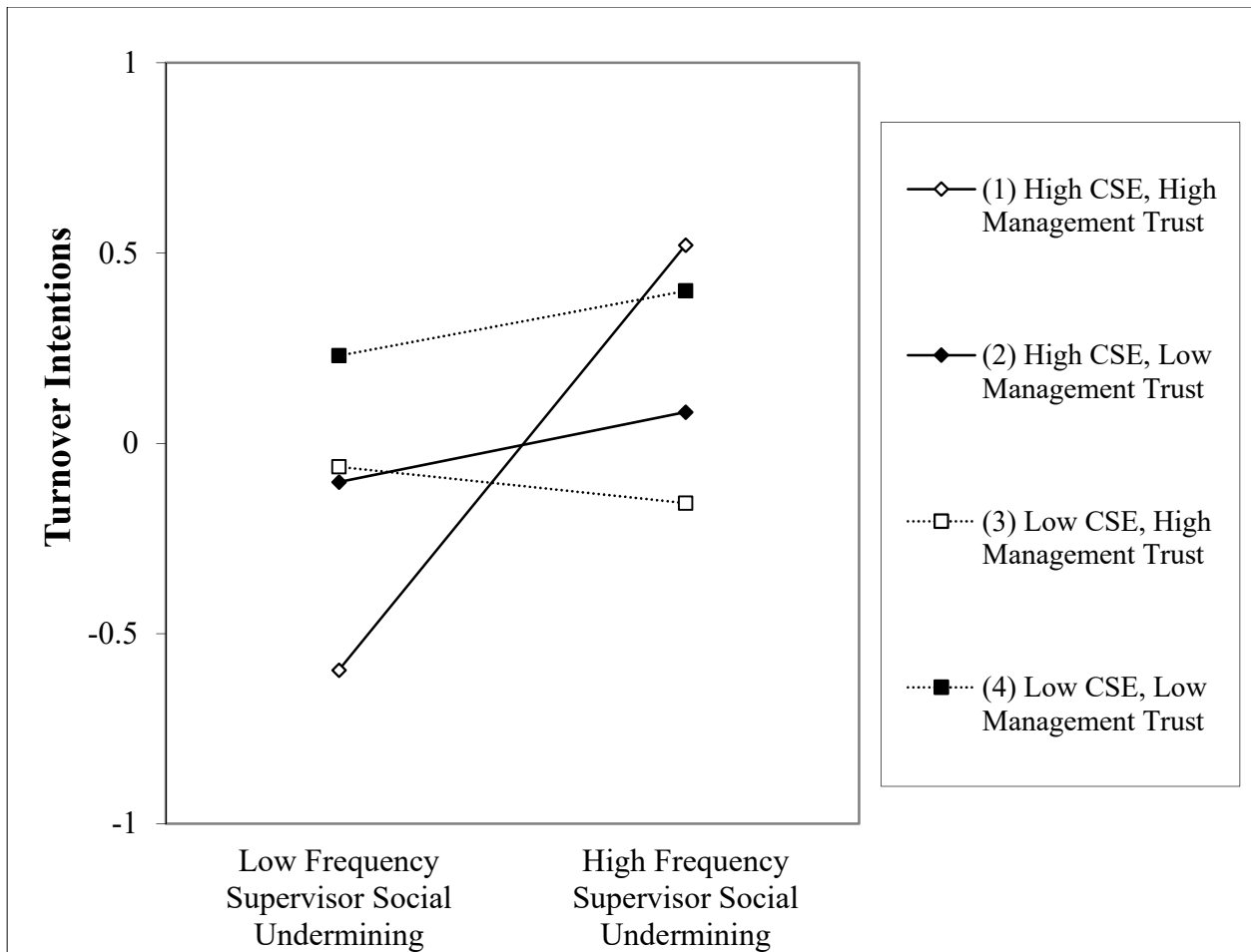


Figure 4
Three-Way Interaction between Undermining, CSE, and Trust on Felt Understanding (Study 2)

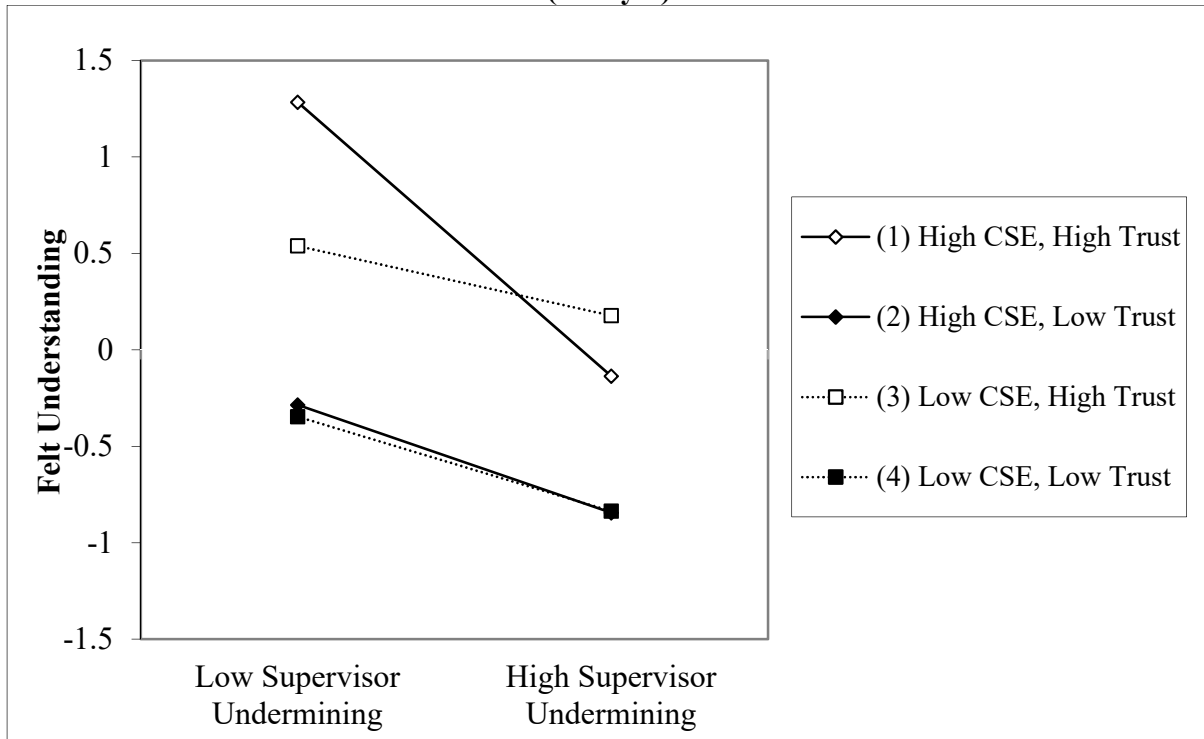


Figure 5
Total Effect of Supervisor Undermining on Stress Appraisal via Felt Understanding
(Study 2)

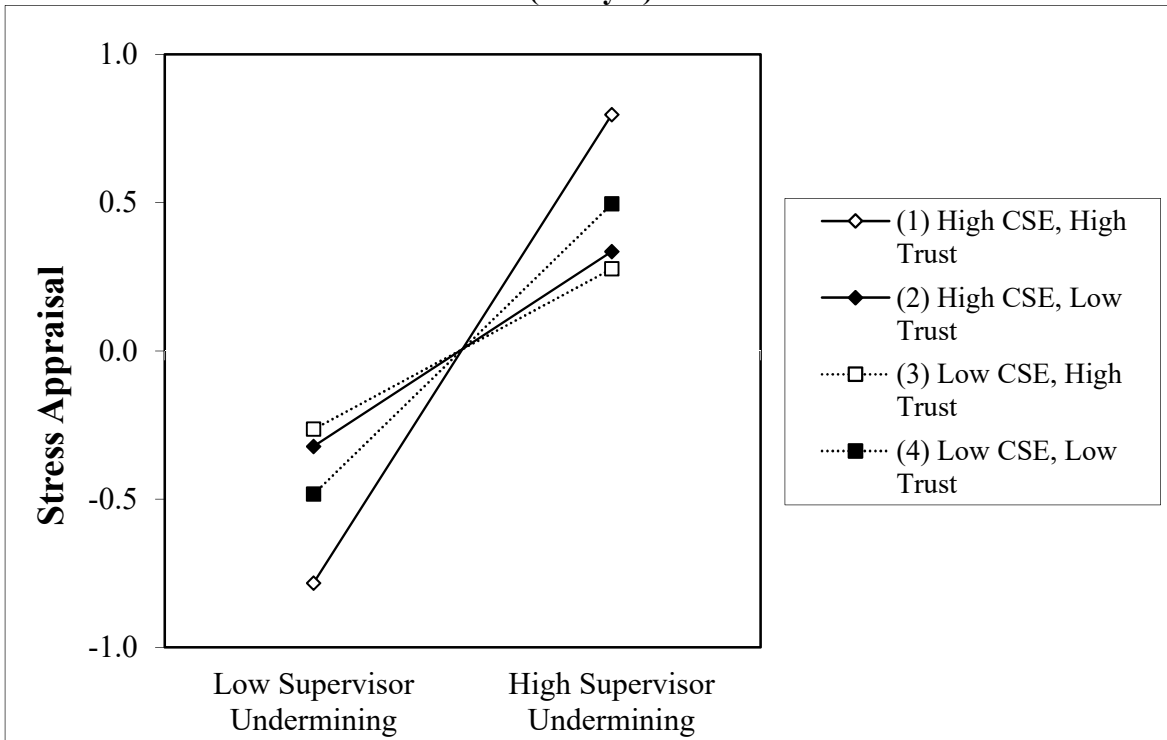


Figure 6
Total Effect of Supervisor Undermining on Turnover Intention via Felt Understanding (Study 2)

